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1 **“We can help us”: Does Community Resilience Buffer Against the Negative Impact of**
2 **Flooding on Mental Health?**

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Abstract

18 Empirical evidence on the relationship between social support and post-disaster mental
19 health provides support for a general beneficial effect of social support (main-effect model;
20 Wheaton, 1985). From a theoretical perspective, a buffering effect of social support on the
21 relationship between disaster-related stress and mental health also seems plausible (stress-
22 buffering-model; *ibid.*). Previous studies however a) have paid less attention to the buffering
23 effect of social support and b) they have mainly relied on interpersonal support (but not
24 collective-level support such as community resilience) when investigating this issue. This
25 work might have underestimated the effect of support on post-disaster mental health. Building
26 on a sample of residents in Germany recently affected by flooding ($N = 118$), we show that
27 community resilience to flooding (but not general interpersonal social support) buffered
28 against the negative effects of flooding on post-disaster mental health. The results support the
29 stress-buffering model and call for a more detailed look at the relationship between
30 support/resilience and post-disaster adjustment, including collective-level variables.

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32 *Keywords:* Flooding, mental health, community resilience, social capital, well-being.

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35 **“We can help us”: Does Community Resilience Buffer Against the Negative Impact of**
36 **Flooding on Mental Health?**

37 On the global scale, flood is one of the most destructive natural hazards, with rising numbers
38 both in terms of the people affected by flooding and the damage attributable to floods
39 (Fattorelli et al., 1999). For example, experts calculated that the annual flood-related losses in
40 Germany may rise from about €500 million in 2001 up to €2 billion by 2100 (Hattermann et
41 al., 2016; Thielen et al., 2016; Thielen et al., 2005). However, flooding does not only incur
42 substantial financial costs on societies, but also threatens people's health and life (Alderman et
43 al., 2012). An example of the devastating potential of flooding is Typhoon Haiyan killing
44 more than 3,900 people when it hit the Philippines in 2013. Previous research has also
45 documented the negative effects of severe flooding experiences on peoples' physical and
46 mental health, such as increased injuries but also increased psychiatric symptoms (e.g.,
47 (Ahern et al., 2005; Alderman et al., 2012).

48 A recent review indicates that different factors may be associated with the severity of
49 mental health problems caused by flooding experiences, including flood characteristics (e.g.
50 level of exposition), personal factors (e.g., coping styles, previous flood experience), and
51 social factors (e.g. social support; Fernandez et al., 2015). While a substantial body of
52 literature has investigated how personal and flood characteristics influence post-disaster
53 mental health (cf. Brewin et al., 2000; Lamond et al., 2015), less is known about the effects of
54 social factors (Fernandez et al., 2015; Twigger-Ross et al., 2011; but see Bonanno et al.,
55 2010). Furthermore, past studies have tended to focus on single factors contributing to mental
56 health outcomes but fewer studies investigated the interplay between different types of social
57 factors to explain these outcomes.

58 The present research aims to advance the understanding of how social factors may
59 interact with other (flood-related) factors in explaining the mental health impacts of flooding.
60 Specifically, it investigates how social resources on the community level (i.e. perceived



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61 community resilience to natural hazards; (Pfefferbaum et al., 2013) can help to buffer against
62 the negative effects of flooding on mental health (stress-buffering model; Wheaton, 1985).
63 For this purpose, we analyze data of 118 respondents of a questionnaire survey gathered
64 immediately after a severe flood event in the German federal state Bavaria in 2016. The
65 article is structured in the following way: It first provides an overview of past research on
66 flooding and mental health and of the personal and social factors affecting how people can
67 cope effectively with traumatic experiences. We then present our research hypotheses about
68 the direct and indirect effects of interpersonal-level and collective-level social support
69 (community resilience) on mental health outcomes of flooding experiences. After the
70 presentation of the results, the article concludes with a discussion of the findings and
71 suggestions for future research.

72 **Floods, resilience, and mental health**

73 Previous reviews collected evidence showing that (financial and non-financial) flooding
74 losses and the stress caused by these losses deteriorate people’s mental health condition:
75 Respondents exposed to severe flooding reported more depression, anxiety and
76 psychosomatic symptoms (headache, bodily pain) and had a higher probability of post-
77 traumatic stress disorder (Alderman et al., 2012). Results also indicate that flooding
78 experiences affected negatively people’s psychological wellbeing and – at least in some
79 studies – led to increased medication usage (Fernandez et al., 2015). Many of the negative
80 impacts of flooding experiences on mental health are transitory and do not develop into
81 clinical disorders (Bonanno et al., 2010; Stein et al., 2007). However, sustained negative health
82 outcomes were also found in a number of studies (Carroll et al., 2009; Du et al., 2010;
83 Kraemer et al., 2009; Medd et al., 2015; Tapsell and Tunstall, 2008; van Ootegem and
84 Verhofstadt, 2016; Whittle et al., 2012); see Ohl and Tapsell, 2000, for an early review). For
85 example, Sekulova and van den Bergh (2016) showed that experience of flooding decreased
86 life satisfaction up to six years after the flood event (von Möllendorff and Hirschfeld, 2016)



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87 Although floods often have negative mental outcomes, not all people exposed to
88 flooding are affected equally in terms of health problems. Previous research has identified
89 several factors that are supposed to mediate or moderate the impact of flooding experiences
90 on mental health, including personal factors, flood characteristics, and social factors
91 (Fernandez et al., 2015). Personal factors refer to individual-level characteristics like
92 socioeconomic characteristics, existing health problems, but also (cognitive) coping styles
93 (Bei et al., 2013; Carver et al., 1989; Mason et al., 2010) or perceived self-efficacy (Benight
94 and Bandura, 2004). For example, high levels of ego-resilience, i.e. an “individual’s capacity
95 for flexible and resourceful adaptation to external and internal stressors” (Alessandri et al.,
96 2012, p. 139), were positively associated with more favorable mental health outcomes
97 following traumatic experiences (Philippe et al., 2011). Flood characteristics refer to the
98 severity of exposure or perceived severity of losses. Not surprisingly, severe negative flooding
99 experiences like high property losses or the need to relocation are associated with poorer
100 mental health outcomes (Bubeck and Thielen, 2018; Fernandez et al., 2015; Foudi et al.,
101 2017; Mason et al., 2010),

102 Social factors refer to general or hazard-related social structures (e.g. flood action
103 groups; (Dittrich et al., 2016) which generate the social support needed to cope with losses
104 due to flooding (Bubeck and Thielen, 2018). In contrast to personal factors and flood
105 characteristics, social factors have received less attention when discussing the impacts of
106 flooding on mental health. Previous work has introduced conceptual distinctions between
107 different types of social support (e.g., emotional, informational and tangible help; (Norris et
108 al., 2005), sources of social support (e.g., partner, family, friends, community members or
109 professionals, Kaniasty and Norris, 2009), and between perceived and received social support
110 (Kaniasty and Norris, 2009; Fernandez et al., 2015). Existing empirical evidence already
111 corroborates the assumption that social support is also beneficial for post-disaster mental
112 health conditions (see Bonanno et al., 2010; Kaniasty and Norris, 2009, for reviews).



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113 Less agreement exists, however, about the specific way(s) through which social
114 support can affect mental health outcomes and post-disaster recovery. Previous theorizing has
115 developed three models of how social support may influence the relationship between stress
116 and mental health (Wheaton, 1985). First, the *main-effect model* (or distress deterrent model)
117 assumes a generalized beneficial effect of support on mental health that originates from people's
118 inclusion in tight-knit social networks (see Fig. 1a). Inclusion in tight-knit social networks
119 cannot only provide direct material resources but also psychological resources like a sense of
120 predictability and stability in one's life and positive self-worth. Both types of resources can
121 help individuals to maintain positive affect states (Cohen and Wills, 1985). Second, the *stress-*
122 *buffering model* states that social support dampens the negative effect of stress on mental
123 health (see Fig. 1b). Statistically, the stress-buffering model assumes that social support
124 moderates the effect of stress on mental health. Past research has identified different stress
125 buffering mechanisms of social support (Cohen and Wills, 1985), for example people's
126 perception that other (individual or collective) actors from their social networks can provide
127 sufficient resources to reduce or mitigate the negative consequences of a threatening situation.
128 If such resources are available, people may alter their appraisals of stressors or change their
129 coping responses (e.g. more problem-focus coping), leading to better adjustment. As a third
130 possibility, the *social support deterioration* model assumes that people who experience severe
131 disaster losses perceive less post-disaster social support and social embeddedness (see Fig. 1c;
132 Kaniasty, 2012; Kaniasty and Norris, 2009). Statistically, this model expects a mediating role
133 of social support on mental health.

134 *(Insert Figure 1 about here)*

135 In the flood context, the empirical evidence for the three models is mixed. A number
136 of studies have corroborated the main-effect model and the social support deterioration model
137 (Bei et al., 2013; Bubeck and Thieken, 2018; Dai et al., 2016; Kaniasty, 2012; Kaniasty and
138 Norris, 2008; Norris et al., 2005; Ruggiero et al., 2009; Wind et al., 2011; Wind & Komproe,



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139 2012). In contrast, less evidence has been found for the stress-buffering model (Benight,
140 2004). The mixed empirical evidence for the three models, however, might simply be
141 attributable to the fact that previous disaster research has focused on testing the main-effect
142 model and has paid less attention to the stress-buffering model. Conceptually, Cohen and
143 Wills (1985) have hypothesized that the specific effect of social support (main-effect vs.
144 buffering effect) may depend on whether social support is defined as the availability of
145 resources that help to ameliorate the threat (functional measures of social support) or as
146 peoples’ degree of integration in social networks (structural measures of social support). They
147 provided first evidence for their assumption that the buffering effect of social support was
148 more pronounced for functional measures of social support than for structural measures.
149 Likewise, Cohen and Wills (1985) found support for the main-effect model when using
150 structural measures. Other results seem to corroborate this reasoning. Benight (2004) found
151 that the buffering effect on post-disaster distress was stronger for collective efficacy as
152 compared to general social support. The measure of collective efficacy used in this study
153 resembled more closely a functional measure of social support, including questions on the
154 community’s (physical, financial, non-material) resources to respond effectively to disaster
155 events. In contrast, his measure of social support referred to more general (and not necessarily
156 disaster-related) facets of social support, such as the availability of persons to associate with
157 or to talk to about problems (i.e. structural measure of social support). In line with the
158 findings of Cohen and Wills (1985), Benight’s (2004) results showed a main effect of social
159 support (structural measure) but not of collective efficacy (functional measure) on
160 psychological distress. However, as the sample size of the Benight (2004) study was below 50
161 participants, these findings need further replications.

162 In sum, previous research has found evidence for the beneficial effects of social
163 support on people’s post-disaster adjustment. Less clarity exists about the ways how different
164 forms of social support influence the relationship between disaster-related stress and mental
165 health outcomes (main-effect vs. buffering model). One reason for this might be the lack of



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166 studies that have tested both mechanisms in one study using structural as well as functional
167 social support measures.

168 **The Present Research**

169 The present research has two main objectives. First, we aim to investigate in more detail how
170 flood-related stress (i.e. material and non-material losses due to flooding) and social support
171 may affect mental health outcomes of flooding, both individually and jointly. We therefore
172 test the (relative) predictive power of the main-effect model and the stress-buffering model of
173 social support based on a German community sample affected by flooding. We assume that
174 previous research on flooding has underestimated the effect of social support on mental health
175 by focusing on main effects. A more rigorous analysis needs to investigate possible main and
176 interaction effects of social support to account for the - possibly - multiple ways how support
177 may influence mental health outcomes. Second, previous work has often used measures of
178 *interpersonal* social support or has focused on personal determinants of protective behavior
179 (Begg et al., 2016; see Bamberg et al., 2017, for a meta-analysis). In contrast, *collective-level*
180 factors such as a community's capacity to deal with natural hazards (i.e. community
181 resilience) have received less attention (but see (Lowe et al., 2015). As natural disasters
182 usually pose a challenge not only to single individuals but to society at large, more research is
183 needed to investigate the effects of collective-level variables on post-disaster mental health
184 beyond the effects of interpersonal social support measures (see Fritsche et al., 2018, for a
185 similar social psychological approach to addressing global environmental problems). The
186 present research thus applies measures of interpersonal social support to flooding as well as of
187 collective social support (community resilience). Resilient communities describe communities
188 that can “cope effectively with and learn from adversity” (Pfefferbaum et al., 2011, p. 1).
189 Following our theorizing above, we expect the buffering effect of social support to be more
190 pronounced when applying measures of collective (vs. interpersonal) social support.

191 More exploratory, the present research also investigates possible downstream
192 consequences of flood-related losses and social support. Specifically, we ask whether flood-



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193 related losses have a conditional indirect effect on life satisfaction through post-disaster
194 mental health. Previous research found that exposure to natural hazards decrease people’s life
195 satisfaction (von Möllendorff and Hirschfeld, 2016).

196 Extending this work, we test whether post-disaster mental health mediates the
197 relationship between losses and life satisfaction as a function of community resilience.

198 In sum, the present research aims to complement previous work on the psychological
199 recovery from flooding by investigating in more detail how interpersonal and collective
200 measures of social support affect the association between negative flooding experiences and
201 post-disaster mental health and well-being. More precisely, the empirical part of our article
202 focuses on testing the following hypotheses:

203 **H1:** Perceived negative consequences of flooding (e.g., financial and non-financial losses)
204 have a negative direct (main-) effect on post-disaster mental health.

205 **H2:** Perceived collective social support (community resilience) has a positive direct (main-)
206 effect on post-disaster mental health.

207 **H3:** Perceived interpersonal social support has a positive direct (main-) effect on post-disaster
208 mental health.

209 **H4:** Perceived collective social support buffers (moderates) the direct impact of negative
210 consequences on post-disaster mental health.

211 **H5:** Perceived interpersonal support buffers (moderates) the direct impact of negative
212 consequences on post-disaster mental health.

213 **H6:** Post-disaster mental health has a positive direct effect on life satisfaction.

214 **H7:** Post-disaster mental health mediates the effects of perceived negative consequences
215 flooding and social support on life satisfaction.

216 **Method**

217 **Sample Characteristics.** In June 2016, a severe flood event hit three small towns in
218 the Rottal-Inn district, federal state of Bavaria, Germany. Five people lost their lives and
219 flood-related damages are estimated at roughly €1 billion. Approximately six weeks after the



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220 disaster, a group of researchers from our team conducted a household survey in these three
221 towns. Local town councils provided us with lists of streets affected by the flood event. We
222 distributed 600 paper-and-pencil surveys and provided households with a link to an online
223 survey. Answers were collected for a period of approximately two months. After excluding
224 participants with missing data, the final sample contains 118 respondents aged from 18 to 80
225 (46.7% female, $M_{age} = 50.73$, $SD_{age} = 14.70$). The majority of the participants were property
226 owners (79.2%) and approximately one third of the participants (32.5%) had previous flood
227 experience.

228 **Measures.** Table 1 presents the means, standard deviations, Cronbach's alpha
229 coefficients (provided in parentheses), and inter-scale correlations for each of the variables.
230 Unless otherwise noted, all items used five-point Likert scales. To fit the requirements (space
231 limitations) of a field study, the scales were operationalized with a limited number of items
232 (or single items). We assessed perceived *consequences of the flood event* (i.e. flood-related
233 stress) with four items (six-point scale, 0 = not affected, 1 = not very severe, 5 = very severe).
234 The items referred to the severity of the consequences for respondents' house/flat, other
235 valuables, general financial situation, and their psychological well-being (Begg et al., 2016).
236 Next, we measured *post-disaster mental health*, including measures of psychological and
237 physical distress as well as sense of coherence. Participants answered three items on flood-
238 related *psychological distress* (“How often have you felt [upset, anxious, sad] during the last
239 four weeks?”; 1 = never, 5 = very often) taken from the Short-Form Health Survey (Ware and
240 Sherbourne, 1992). Four items measured flood-related *physical distress* (“How often have you
241 had [headache, heart palpitations, upset stomach, stomachache] during the last four weeks?”;
242 1 = never, 5 = very often). As an additional health-related variable, a 5-item measure of *sense*
243 *of coherence* was included in the questionnaire (Schumacher et al., 2000); example item:
244 “When you think about your life, you very often: 1 = feel how good it is to be alive, 5 = ask
245 yourself why you exist at all”). Sense of coherence (Antonovsky, 1988) refers to “people's
246 ability to assess and understand the situation they were in, to find a meaning to move in a



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247 health promoting direction, also having the capacity to do so” (Eriksson, 2017). Participants
248 then answered a one-item indicator of *life satisfaction* (“All things considered, how satisfied
249 are you with your life as a whole?”; 1 = completely dissatisfied, 5 = completely satisfied).

250 Perceived *collective social support* (community resilience to natural hazards) was
251 measured with the Communities Advancing Resilience Toolkit Assessment Survey (CART;
252 Pfefferbaum et al., 2013; Pfefferbaum et al., 2015). The scale had been translated to German
253 by a back-translation procedure. Due to space limitations, we had to reduce the number of
254 items from 21 to 14 items (example items: “People in my community feel like they belong to
255 the community”, “My community has resources it needs to take care of community problems
256 (resources include, for example, money, information, technology, tools, raw materials, and
257 services)”); 1 = totally disagree, 5 = totally agree). Participants also answered three items on
258 perceived *interpersonal social support* taken from the social support questionnaire (Fydrich et
259 al.; example item: “I have people close to me, if I need someone to talk to”, 1 = totally
260 disagree, 5 = totally agree). Finally, participants were asked to answer a five-item measure of
261 *ego-resilience* (or resilient coping) based on Kocalevent et al. (2017). The scale measures
262 individual differences in people’s tendency to cope with stress in an adaptive manner and
263 served as a covariate in the analyses (example item “Regardless of what happens to me, I
264 believe I can control my reaction to it”; 1 = totally disagree, 5 = totally agree).

265 Results

266 **Analysis strategy.** The data was analyzed using SPSS software (hierarchical multiple
267 regression) and Mplus 7.3 software (path analysis, multi group comparison). Following Aiken
268 and West (1991), all interactions were probed at one standard deviation above (+1 SD) and
269 one standard deviation below (-1 SD) the mean of the moderator. All continuous predictors
270 were mean-centered prior to the calculation of the interaction terms.

271 **Hierarchical multiple regression analysis results.** Based on their substantive
272 positive inter-correlations (see Table 1), we combined the three measures of psychological and
273 physical distress and sense of coherence into a single measure of post-disaster mental health.



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274 We recoded the measures in order that higher values indicate better mental health. To test our
275 hypotheses, we submitted the combined measure of post-disaster mental health to hierarchical
276 multiple regression analysis with interaction tests. We included perceived negative
277 consequences of the flood event, perceived collective social support (community resilience)
278 and perceived interpersonal support as predictors in Step 1 of the analysis as well as the two-
279 way interaction terms of perceived consequences and collective and interpersonal social
280 support as additional predictors in Step 2 of the analysis. Results of the regression analyses
281 are shown in Table 2.

282 In Step 1, the results showed a negative main effect of perceived negative flood
283 consequences (**H1**), $\beta = -.40$, $t(116) = -4.96$, $p < .001$, and a positive main effect of perceived
284 collective social support (**H2**), $\beta = .25$, $t(116) = 3.00$, $p = .003$, on post-disaster mental health.
285 These effects were qualified by the expected interaction effect of perceived negative flood
286 consequences and collective social support (**H4**) in Step 2, $\beta = .22$, $t(114) = 2.46$, $p = .016$
287 (see Figure 2). Simple slope analysis revealed that perceived consequences were negatively
288 correlated with post-disaster mental health only when perceived collective social support was
289 low (-1 SD), unstandardized $b = -.30$, $t(114) = -5.47$, $p < .001$, but not at high levels of
290 collective social support (+1 SD), unstandardized $b = -.09$, $t(114) = -1.29$, $p = .199$. For the
291 interpersonal social support measure, results neither showed a significant main (**H3**) nor a
292 significant interaction effect (**H5**). As expected, these findings provide empirical evidence for
293 a substantive buffering effect of social support (stress-buffering model). Furthermore, they
294 indicate that the buffering effect is more pronounced for perceived collective social support
295 than for perceived interpersonal social support. We also conducted separate regression
296 analyses with psychological & physical distress or sense of coherence as dependent variables.
297 Results showed significant interaction effects of perceived consequences and collective social
298 support (community resilience) for both dependent variables (distress & sense of coherence),
299 thus supporting the robustness of our findings.



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300 To test the stability of our results, we also included ego-resilience as a covariate in the
301 analysis. Results showed a positive main effect of ego-resilience, indicating that respondents
302 who were more psychologically resilient reported better post-disaster mental health. More
303 importantly, the interaction effect of perceived flood consequences and collective social
304 support remained significant, $\beta = .18$, $t(112) = 2.09$, $p = .039$. Our results thus provide
305 evidence for the beneficial effect of collective-level factors (community resilience) beyond
306 individual-level variables such as personal coping styles or a person’s mental capacity to cope
307 successfully with stress.

308 *(Insert Figure 2 about here)*

309 **Indirect effects: Life satisfaction.** Figure 3 presents the results of a path analysis
310 (Mplus 7.3) including life-satisfaction as an additional dependent variable. Life satisfaction is
311 interpreted as a long-term subjective resilience indicator. We found no significant main effect
312 of perceived negative flood consequences on life satisfaction ($\beta = -.03$) or interpersonal social
313 support ($\beta = .08$) but a positive main effect of collective social support on life satisfaction (β
314 $= .31$). In line with **H6**, post-disaster mental health showed a statistically significant positive
315 association with life satisfaction ($\beta = .44$). Comparison of indirect effects showed that post-
316 disaster mental health completely mediated the association between negative flood
317 consequences and life satisfaction and partly mediated the association between collective
318 social support and life satisfaction (**H7**). Together, mental health and perceived collective
319 social support explain 35 percent of the variance in life satisfaction. The model depicted in
320 Figure 3 fits the empirical co-variances matrix well ($\chi^2 = 1.95$, $df = 1$, $p = 0.16$, $CFI = 0.99$,
321 $TLI = 0.93$, $RMSEA = 0.09$).

322 *(Insert Figure 3 about here)*

323 More exploratory, we also tested whether the indirect effect of perceived consequences
324 on life satisfaction through mental health was conditional on the level of collective social
325 support (high vs. low collective social support). As we had found a buffering effect of



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326 collective social support on post-disaster mental health, we tested whether mental health
327 would mediate this buffering effect on life satisfaction. We used the multiple group option of
328 Mplus to test for a possible conditional indirect effect. More precisely, we estimated
329 simultaneously the same association structure between perceived consequences, post-disaster
330 mental health and life satisfaction for participants with lower levels of collective social
331 support ($N = 54$) and participants with higher levels of collective social support ($N = 64$). The
332 median split of the perceived collective social support variable ($Md = 3.14$) was used for
333 creating these two subgroups. Figure 4 presents the results of the multiple group analysis.

334 *(Insert Figure 4 about here)*

335 In the multiple group analysis, the significant interaction effect of perceived flood
336 consequences and collective social support should be reflected in a significantly stronger
337 flood consequences – mental health association in the low collective social support subgroup
338 (i.e. low community resilience subgroup) as compared to the high collective social support
339 subgroup (i.e. high community resilience subgroup). This assumption can be tested with a χ^2
340 difference test comparing the χ^2 value of a multiple group model specifying the flood
341 consequences – mental health association equal across both subgroups versus a model
342 specifying these path coefficients as free across both groups. The χ^2 difference value resulting
343 from the model comparison is statistically significant ($\chi^2 = 8.42$, $df = 1$, $p < .001$). That is,
344 fixing the flood consequences – mental health path equal across both groups results in a
345 significant decrease of model fit. As depicted in Figure 4, the estimated negative flood
346 consequences – mental health association is $b = -.34$ (unstandardized path coefficient) for the
347 subgroup with low collective social support (collective support < median). For the high
348 collective social support subgroup (collective support > median), the estimated path
349 coefficient is only $b = -.10$ and statistically insignificant. All other path coefficients could be
350 fixed equal across both subgroups without causing a significant decrease in model fit. The



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351 multiple group model depicted in Figure 4 has a good fit ($\chi^2 = 0.64$ $df = 2$, $p = 0.72$, $CFI =$
352 1.00 , $TLI = 1.07$, $RMSEA = 0.00$).

353 The indirect effect estimates provided by Mplus can be used for quantifying the
354 indirect buffering effect of collective social support (community resilience) on post-disaster
355 life satisfaction: For the subgroup of participants with lower community resilience, the
356 significant total effect of the perceived negative flood consequences on life satisfaction is
357 0.21. For the subgroup of participants with higher community resilience, the total effect of the
358 perceived negative flood consequences on life satisfaction is only 0.06, which is statistically
359 insignificant. These results clearly indicate a substantive indirect buffering effect of collective
360 social support on life satisfaction through post-disaster mental health.

361 Discussion

362 The present research had two main objectives: To investigate how negative flood experiences
363 and social support are correlated with post-disaster mental health and life satisfaction and to
364 analyze whether these associations would differ as a function of type of social support
365 (collective vs. interpersonal social support). Our analyses are based on a data set of 118
366 respondents from Germany, surveyed six to twelve weeks after they were affected by a severe
367 flood event.

368 The results of statistical analyses provide clear answers to both questions: Perceived
369 negative flood consequences were substantively negatively associated with post-disaster
370 mental health while perceived collective social support (community resilience) was positively
371 associated with post-disaster mental health. However, the main effect of collective support
372 was qualified by a statistically significant positive interaction effect of perceived flood
373 consequences (e.g. flood-related losses) and collective social support. Further analysis of this
374 interaction effect demonstrated that perceptions of the flood event as very severe were
375 associated with worse post-disaster mental health only in case of low levels of perceived
376 community resilience (low collective social support). When the community’s capability to
377 effectively deal with catastrophic events was perceived as high (high collective support), even



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378 greater flood-related losses were no longer associated with poorer mental health outcomes.
379 This adds further empirical evidence to the so-called stress-buffering model that states that
380 social support dampens the negative effect of stress on mental health (Wheaton, 1985).
381 Including the interaction term of perceived consequences and collective social support in the
382 analysis increased the explanatory power of the statistical model from 23 to 27 percent of the
383 variance explained in post-disaster mental health. In other words, a simple test of the main-
384 effect model of social support would have underestimated the beneficial effect of social
385 support on post-disaster mental health and recovery. Previous flooding research has
386 (sometimes) tended to rely on main effects when discussing the role of social support for
387 mental health outcomes. In contrast, our findings suggest that a more detailed look at this
388 issue might be feasible to better account for the multiple ways how social support can affect
389 mental health and recovery in times of crisis. We thus encourage future research to test the
390 stress-buffering model more frequently to better capture the possible interplay of flood-related
391 stress and social support for their role in post-disaster recovery processes.

392 Regarding our second question, the present results corroborate the general assumption
393 that social support is beneficial for post-disaster mental health. Yet, they also provide
394 evidence that this buffering effect of support might be stronger for more collective forms of
395 social support (community resilience) as compared to more interpersonal forms of social
396 support (general social support from family, friends etc.). After controlling for collective
397 social support, we found no main or interaction effects of interpersonal social support on the
398 dependent variables. Our results partly support Cohen and Wills (1985) assumptions about the
399 effects of different types of social support on mental adjustment following exposure to
400 stressors. Whereas functional measures of support should have a buffering (i.e. moderator)
401 effect on psychological distress (buffering model), the effects of structural support measures
402 should be more in line with the main-effect model. As our measure of collective social
403 support resembles more closely a functional support measure, the present interaction effect of
404 collective support and perceived flood consequences corroborates Cohen and Wills’ (1985)



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405 reasoning. Contrary to the authors’ assumptions however, our data revealed no main effect of
406 interpersonal (i.e. more structural) measures of social support. This might be attributable to
407 the (skewed) distribution of our interpersonal support measure. Mean interpersonal social
408 support ($M = 3.98$) was well above the midpoint of the scale (3), thus possibly restricting the
409 detection of main effects. Another reason might be that the operationalization of the two
410 measures of social support differed not only with regard to their type of support (interpersonal
411 vs. collective support), but also with regard their relevance to flooding. Whereas the collective
412 support measure referred to the community’s capacity to deal with natural hazards, the
413 interpersonal support measure referred to general aspects of people’s social networks.
414 Although these differences were in part central to our research questions, future research may
415 aim to disentangle the effects of type of support (functional vs. structural) from a possible
416 context effect (flood-related vs. not flood-related).

417 More exploratory data analyses also indicated that negative flooding experiences have
418 a conditional indirect negative effect on life satisfaction, completely mediated by mental
419 health. Sub-group analyses showed that this indirect negative effect on life satisfaction is
420 substantially reduced when collective social support is high: For the sub-group with low
421 collective social support, negative flooding experiences have a more than three times higher
422 indirect negative impact on post-disaster life satisfaction than for the sub-group with higher
423 collective social support. Again, these findings support our call to account for possible
424 buffering effects of social support - also on the downstream (i.e. more distal) consequences of
425 flooding - by applying appropriate research designs (e.g. moderator analysis).

426 **Conclusion**

427 The present results impressively underline the significance of the social support construct for
428 our understanding of how people cope psychologically with the negative consequences of
429 natural disasters such as floods. The second important insight of the present study consists in
430 the finding that only perceived collective social support but not (general) interpersonal social
431 support was critical for damping the negative psychological effects of severe flood



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432 experiences. Although the effects of social capital on mental health outcomes have been
433 studied for some time (McPherson et al., 2014; Silva et al., 2005), research on post-flooding
434 recovery has not systematically distinguished between more interpersonal and more collective
435 types of support. This might be somewhat surprising given the fact that flood events are
436 collective phenomena that usually can only be mastered by collective effort. From this
437 perspective, it seems quite self-evident that perceptions of one’s own community as being
438 more resilient to natural disasters are associated with less negative mental health outcomes at
439 the individual level, as suggested by our results. Nevertheless, our findings have important
440 theoretical and practical implications.

441 Conceptually, our results suggest that it might be feasible for future research to put a
442 stronger focus on collective-level processes and resources as well as on possible interactive
443 effects of (personal, flood-related, social) factors when thinking about how people cope with
444 flood events. Because of the correlational nature of our results, the assumed causality of the
445 described associations between collective social support and post-disaster mental health
446 remains, however, insecure. Thus, longitudinal or (when possible) experimental tests of the
447 effects of the different types of social support are necessary for clarifying causality. Recent
448 findings lend some support to this claim (Lowe et al., 2015; Wind and Komproe, 2012).
449 Applying a longitudinal design, Matsuyama et al. (2016) found that both individual-level and
450 community-level social support independently and positively contributed to post-disaster
451 mental health of earthquake survivors in Japan. Future research may investigate how different
452 types of social support interact with personal or flood-related factors to influence mental
453 health outcomes. Such a research focus would also promote a more systematic integration of
454 the psychological literature on coping with stressful events and the sociological literature on
455 the social capital concept. After all, social networks are the central structural component of
456 the social capital concept (Coleman, 1988, Portes, 1998, Putnam, 2000). Social capital does
457 not refer to individuals, but to the relationships among individuals. It thus provides access to
458 the resources of social and social life such as support, assistance, recognition, knowledge and



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459 connections. Combining psychological research with research on the different dimensions of
460 social capital (structural, cognitive, relational dimensions; Nahapiet and Ghoshal, 1998) might
461 further our understanding of how personal, flood-related and social factors (jointly) contribute
462 to resilience and post-disaster well-being.

463 Including collective-level variables (such as community resilience) in models of post-
464 disaster adjustment would also have important practical implications. Currently, most flood
465 intervention programs are targeted at (the promotion of) individual protective behaviors
466 (Bamberg et al., 2017). Focusing on models of collective behavior (Fritsche et al., 2018)
467 could foster the development of theory-based interventions that also promote collective (e.g.
468 communal) support systems. As an example of such interventions, the Communities
469 Advancing Resilience Toolkit (CART) aims to assist communities in systematically enhancing
470 their resilience to disasters (Pfefferbaum et al., 2013, 2015). CART is a community-driven
471 intervention that consists of a strategic planning process for building community resilience to
472 disasters with instruments for collecting data to develop and implement resilience-building
473 strategies. Previous applications of the CART survey instrument have corroborated the
474 proposed model structure (Pfefferbaum et al., 2015; Pfefferbaum et al., 2013), but
475 (longitudinal) evaluations of the community toolkit as an intervention program are a pending
476 task for future research. We are convinced that theory-based development, implementation,
477 and evaluation of collective-level interventions provide a feasible avenue for social science
478 disaster research both theoretically and practically.

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690 Table 1

691 *Means, standard deviations, Cronbach's alpha coefficients (provided in parentheses), and*
 692 *inter-scale correlations between variables*

Variable	M	SD	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.
1. Consequences flood event	2.62	1.54	(.84)	.40***	.33***	-.28**	-.14	-.01	.04	.08
2. Psychological distress	3.25	1.06		(.73)	.58***	-.56***	-.26**	-.14	.08	-.19*
3. Physical distress	2.57	1.15			(.83)	-.47***	-.29**	-.06	-.02	-.07
4. Sense of coherence	3.49	0.85				(.78)	.59***	.39***	.20*	.29**
5. Life satisfaction	3.66	0.95					^a	.45***	.19*	.10
6. Collective social support	3.17	0.70						(.90)	.22*	.16
7. Interpersonal social support	3.98	0.69							(.89)	.21*
8. Ego-resilience	3.83	0.69								(.75)

693 *Note.* * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$; ^a Cronbach's alpha not computed (single item measure)

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695 Table 2

696 *Hierarchical regression of the combined post-disaster mental health measure on perceived*
 697 *negative consequences, perceived collective social support (community resilience), perceived*
 698 *interpersonal social support and their interaction terms*

Step		β	SE	R^2	adj. R^2	ΔR^2	F
1	<i>DV: post-disaster mental health</i>			.23	.21	.23***	11.28***
	Perceived consequences	.44***	.05				
	Collective social support	-.18*	.12				
	Interpersonal social support	.10	.08				
2	<i>DV: post-disaster mental health</i>			.27	.24	0.04*	9.62***
	Consequences x collective support	-.21**	.08				
	Consequences x interpersonal support	.13 ⁺	.08				

699 Note. ⁺ $p < .10$; * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$

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Figure Captions

718 Figure 1

719 *Different models of the relationship between social support and mental health outcomes*

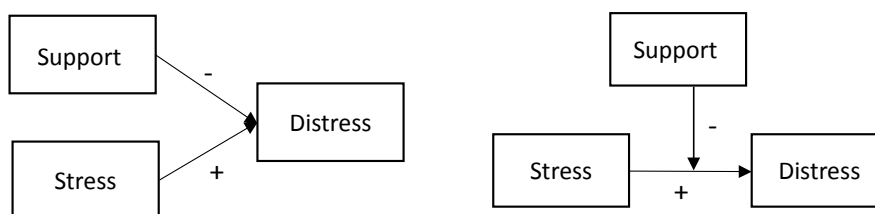
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a) Main-effect model

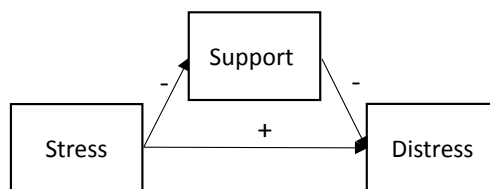
b) Stress-buffering model

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c) Social support deterioration model

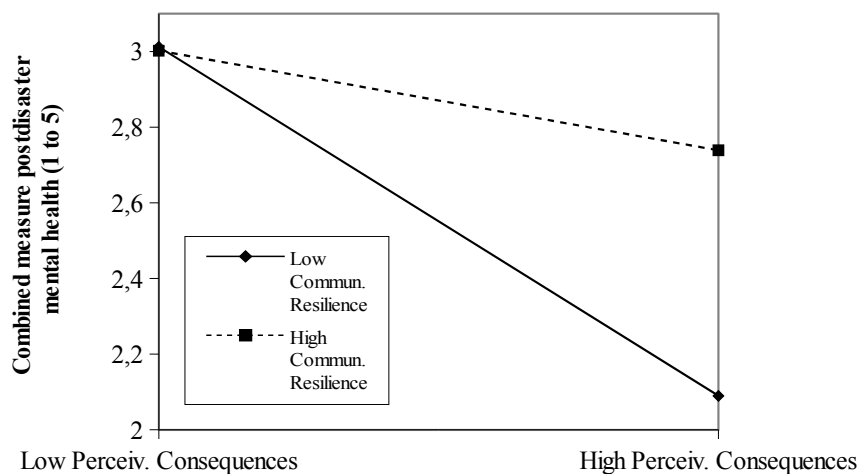
731

732

733 Figure 2

734 *Combined post-disaster mental health measure (1 to 5) as a function of flood-related negative*
 735 *consequences and perceived collective social support (community resilience)*

736



738

739

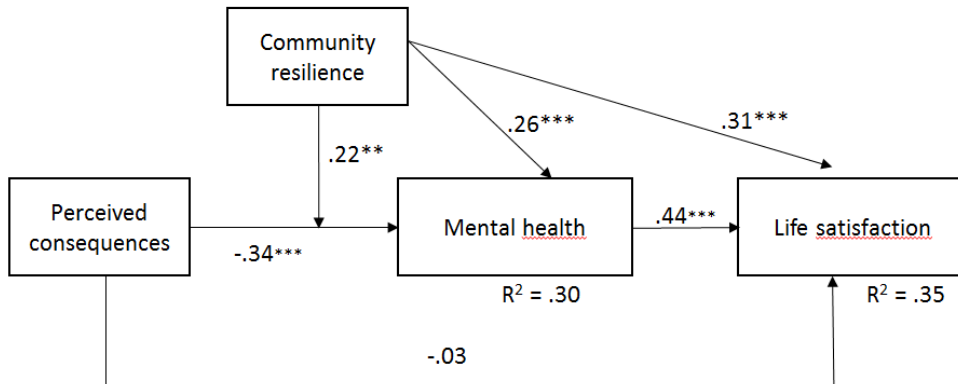


Running head: "We can help us"

31

740 Figure 3

741 Path model with life satisfaction as dependent variable



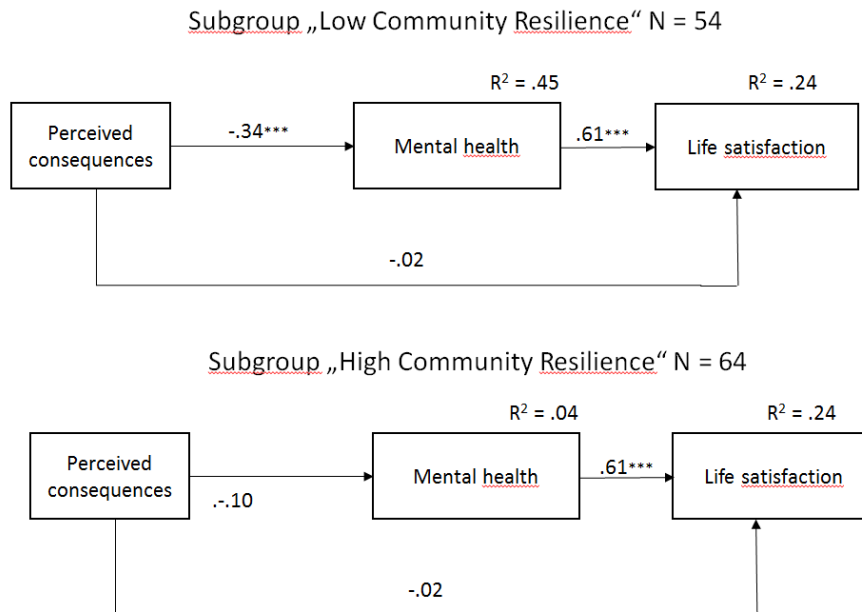
742

743 Note. $N = 118$; standardized path coefficients; $R^2 =$ explained variance; *** = $p < .001$, ** p
 744 $< .01$

745

746 Figure 4

747 Results of the multiple group analysis



748

749 Note. unstandardized path coefficients; $R^2 =$ explained variance; *** = $p < .001$, ** $p < .01$

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751

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